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voyage in Newfoundland and Acadian waters for the special purpose of rectifying the errors in existing charts, that the island began to assume the detailed character it has on modern maps. In 1762 James Cook, a young naval surveyor who later became the famous navigator, was assigned to duty in these waters with instructions to produce an accurate map. The result of his work forms the basis for the current Admiralty charts, and with this Mr. HARRISSE appropriately closes his study.

The majority of students upon opening this volume will look first at the chapters in which Mr. HARRISSE, for at least the fifteenth time, returns to a consideration of the Cabot discovery. The result, with those who have followed the animated discussions for the past five years, will probably be mingled surprise and admiration. Few would have guessed from the acrimony of 1898-1900 that Henry HARRISSE would turn to meet his opponents half way, with a virtual offer to let the disputes rest where they are. It is not to be expected of either side that any contentions will be withdrawn. All will agree, however, with his frank acknowledgment that none of the evidence so far recovered is sufficiently definite to settle the disputed points beyond question, so that all differences are matters of quite justifiable personal opinion. He speaks of Cabot's landfall as on the Labrador coast, but he then goes on to state the evidence and the arguments which make that location virtually impossible. He says that Cabot did not see Newfoundland in 1497, but he also gives an elaborate, unluckily not quite a convincing, argument that La Cosa's chart of 1500 is based entirely, for this region, upon Cabot's first voyage, and moreover, that La Cosa's northeastern American coast line represents what can only be the actual coast of Cape Breton eastward to Cape Race. Oddly enough, he does not even hint at the obvious point that if Cabot made an extended voyage in 1498, he must have seen the island in that year. However pronounced one's personal opinions may be, it is impossible not to recognize that Mr. HARRISSE has with great fairness presented the essential facts as they were understood before the Cabot centenary discussions began, and as they are still retained by the few unprejudiced students of the subject who have kept out of the heat of the conflict.

GEORGE PARKER WINSHIP.

Le Parlement de Paris ; son Rôle Politique depuis le Règne de Charles VII jusqu'à la Révolution. Par E. GLASSON. In two volumes. (Paris : Hachette. 1901. Pp. ii, 469 ; 516.)

ON the origin, organization and procedure of the Parliament of Paris much has been written ; there are the excellent volumes of Aubert ; there is M. Glasson's own account in his *Histoire du Droit et des Institutions de la France*. It is therefore to the "neglected or badly understood" political activity of the Parliament and its relations with the absolute monarchy that M. Glasson has now devoted two volumes.

In the first chapter, which rapidly runs over two centuries and is more in the nature of an introduction to the detailed study which begins with the reign of Henry IV., M. Glasson shows that in the time of

Charles VII., the Parliament of Paris had no political power and wished for none. The political rôle of the Parliament really begins in the sixteenth century, when Francis I. invited its assistance in several public matters in which he needed support, such as the repression of the Huguenots and the annulment of the Treaty of Madrid. He recognized, too, the *droit de remontrance*. Under his weak successors the Parliament began to interfere on its own initiative in matters of state ; it successfully opposed the encroachments of Rome upon the Gallican Church, and by defending the rights of the crown against the attacks of the League did a real service to the monarchy. But when the magistrates thought to exert their political power by opposing the Edict of Nantes, Henry IV. summoned them to him, talked to them "*comme un père de famille*", and reminded them that they were a court of justice and not a political body. The Parliament yielded, and, without abdicating its pretensions, awaited a more favorable opportunity to make them good. This opportunity came with the King's assassination ; on the same day the Parliament voted that the regency should belong to Mary de' Medici.

The final disappearance in 1614 of the States-General, which was the only possible political rival of the Parliament of Paris, the rapidly increasing solidarity of the *noblesse de robe* since the introduction of the *paulette*, and, most important of all, the long weak regencies following the deaths of Henry IV. and Louis XIII. gave the Parliament its chance to take a serious part in political affairs and for a moment in the Fronde really to limit the monarchy by a short-lived charter of liberties. That the Parliament of Paris was ultimately defeated in the Fronde and reduced to political impotence when Louis XIV. reached his majority, M. Glasson believes was due to nothing so much as to the blunders of the magistrates themselves : to their short-sighted alliance with the nobles who exploited Parliament's opposition to Mazarin for their own selfish ends ; to their habit of suspending all justice until their remonstrances had been listened to ; and to their continual refusal to register sensible financial edicts which were necessary for the conduct of the government and the successful conclusion of the war with Spain. Their defeat was emphatically signalled in the famous Bed of Justice where Louis XIV. suddenly entered the Palace of Justice in his hunting costume, and in the energetic words which have been reduced to the apocryphal *L'état c'est moi* gave his Parliament to understand that during his reign justice alone and not politics was to be their concern.

At the beginning of the eighteenth century, for a third time, the minority of the King gave the Parliament a chance to regain political power. At the request of the Duke of Orleans it overthrew the provisions of Louis XIV.'s testament, made Orleans regent, and received in return from him a recognition of the right of remonstrance and certain other privileges which had been taken away by the absolute Louis XIV. Henry IV. and Louis XIV. by their spirit of justice and good administration had made the absolute monarchy respected ; Louis XV., willing to reign but not to govern, made it detested, and this too at a moment

when the new philosophy was beginning to question the basis of the monarchy itself. The magistrates, indoctrinated with Montesquieu and Rousseau, began to show a wholly new tendency in the latter part of Louis XV.'s reign; no longer confining themselves to opposition on questions of finance and religion, they set forth in long remonstrances "fundamental laws" which were subversive of the absolute monarchy and helped prepare the revolution. Maupeou saw the danger and did not hesitate boldly to suppress the Parliament of Paris with its "fundamental laws"; he replaced it with a court of his own creation, in which the venality and many other abuses of the old Parliament were swept away. The new judges were men of moderation and good sense and would, M. Glasson believes, if retained by Louis XVI., have seconded Turgot and helped the government to carry through the indispensable reforms. But Louis XVI., with his fatal weakness of will, contrary to his own better judgment, yielded to the wishes of the people, exiled Maupeou to his estate, dismissed his good parliament, and restored the old Parliament of Paris with all its prejudices, abuses, and factious spirit of systematic opposition. As Turgot had clearly foreseen, and warned the King, the Parliament bitterly opposed the great reform edicts, and sooner or later came into conflict with all the succeeding ministers. It was unable to reform any of the abuses of the Old Régime itself and it systematically refused to lend a helping hand to the monarchy in its attempt to do so. Finally it lost all credit with the people because it demanded that in the meeting of the States-General the forms of 1614 should be observed, intending thereby to secure that predominance of the clergy and nobility over the Third Estate which the magistrates believed the best guarantee for the maintenance of the system of privilege. During the remaining months of its existence, until placed in permanent vacation by the National Assembly in October, 1789, the Parliament had no political influence.

All the ideas which M. Glasson has spread over his two volumes might well have been put within the compass of one. Where an author has used manuscript sources, that are not easily accessible, he may well insert quotations from them in an appendix or foot-notes; but where, as in this case, the author has been content with the printed material,—M. Glasson has not even consulted the registers of the Parliament itself,—there is no excuse for the continual interjection into the text of long quotations from such well-known, but often very partizan, memoirs as those of Molé, Omer Talon, Retz, St. Simon, and Barbier. M. Glasson's book will, nevertheless, be found interesting and useful to students of the absolute monarchy in France.

SIDNEY B. FAY.